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ABSTRACT

This study reports on innovative alternative approaches to children's education in 12 developing countries. These approaches are examined with reference to their flexibility regarding time and place of learning, age of pupils, relationship with formal education systems, relevance and functionality for the actual situation of learners, and ability to meet national and local development goals and learning needs. Findings indicate that nonformal education (NFE) makes use of a wide range of learning sites and that these sites are in keeping with the lifestyles of learners whenever possible. NFE generally demands fewer hours for its program of basic or primary education than the formal equivalent. Classes for children who must work are timed to correspond to their needs. A confidence-building drop-in approach is used to reintegrate street children. Class size varies from small learning groups to large group instruction involving more than 50 pupils. Curricula of NFE vary considerably. A typical curriculum includes instruction in language, elementary mathematics, social science, games, social and human values, and relevant vocational and life skills. Methods of instruction include teacher-centered and self-learning methods. NFE will need accreditation, evaluation, pre-service and in-service teacher education, and funding as the system is improved. (29 references) (RH)

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A Special Study for the WORLD CONFERENCE ON EDUCATION FOR ALL (Thailand, 5-9 March 1990)

MEETING THE BASIC LEARNING NEEDS OF OUT-OF-SCHOOL CHILDREN :

Non-formal Approaches

by R.H. Dave, A.M. Ranaweera and P.J. Sutton

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R.H. Dave, A.M. Ranaweera and P.J. Sutton

January 1990

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SUMMARY

This study reports in detail on innovative alternative approaches to children's education in twelve developing countries. They are examined with reference to their flexibility with regard to time and place of learning, and to age of pupils, to their relationship with formal education systems, to their relevance and functionality for the actual situation of learners, and to their ability to meet national and local development goals and specific learning needs.

It is seen that nonformal arrangements make use of a wide range of learning sites, in keeping where possible with the lifestyle of learners. NFE generally demands fewer hours for its programme of basic or primary education than the formal equivalent. Classes for children who must work are timed to fit in with their needs, both in terms of daily hours and of regularity of occurence and duration of course units. A confidence-building drop-in approach is used to reintegrate street children.

Class size varies from small learning groups to more than 50 pupils, and single sex groups may be necessary where girls are otherwise debarred. NFE is able to help pupils too old for enrolment in the first year of primary school, while in some cases adult education for those aged 15+ extends downwards to accept younger students.

The curricula of NFE vary considerably. In some countries the formal curriculum is taken as the starting point, while others stress religious or vocational aspects. The content and materials may be designed by a central authority or may be negotiated locally to take account of learners' aspirations and occupations. Improvement in the quality of life may be emphasised through elements of health or income generation. In line with development principles, there is sometimes cooperation between various ministries and outside agencies. A typical NFE curriculum contains language and elementary mathematics, social science, games, social and human values, and relevant vocational and life skills. Methods of instruction range from the teacher-centred to self-learning and inter-learning. Successful

examples of provision adapt indigenous materials and methods in an informal atmosphere without a rigid grade structure, and use the first language of the learners.

Analogies with the grades of formal education are misleading, but evaluation and accreditation of NFE are crucial if it is not to be seen as a poor substitute for the formal system. Stressfree assessment can be achieved through tests which are subsequently evaluated cooperatively by learners and teachers together. Bridges to further continuing education are needed, either through higher nonformal or adult education, or entry into the formal system.

NFE schemes themselves are assessed by supervisors, but it exceeds the capacity of project organisers to measure attitudinal change among learners and consequent social impact. Typically, monitoring data flows upward from the local to the national elvel. Some countries have separate formal and nonformal administrative structures, but at the local level officers of both services may collaborate. NGOs play a major role.

Teachers in NFE may be from the formal system, may have expertise in fields other than education (social workers, rural extension workers, etc.), or may be volunteers. They may be nominated by the target community. In all cases some training is usually provided, but further preservice and inservice training appears necessary.

NFE is funded by governments, NGOs, religious organisations, intergovernmental agencies, bilateral and multilateral aid. Figures provided sugges tthat the programme costs of NFE are less than half those of formal primary education, but improvements in teaching aids and physical facilities, and the development of relevant materials in minority languages for residual populations may change this picture. If the obligation of NFE is to be met, the criterion for choosing NFE or formal primary education is the appropriateness of provision and not cost.

The report concludes that NFE is frequently indicated in preference to an extension of formal education in order to meet the needs of marginalised groups. The identification of needs is best conducted in consultation with learners or their parents. Quality of provision can be assured by appropriate planning and evaluation, and the key to continued

motivation appears to be relevance and assurance of achievement. Initial recruitment may nonetheless be problematic.

For further action the report proposes an empirical study of specific issues through demonstration projects; the development and dissemination of techniques and instruments of evaluation; the preparation of guidelines for policy makers and practitioners; and networking between ongoing projects.

MEETING THE BASIC LEARNING NEEDS OF OUT OF SCHOOL CHILDREN: NONFORMAL APPROACHES

1. BASIC EDUCATION FOR ALL: A GLOBAL MOVEMENT

There is wide agreement that education, including literacy, is a major factor in combating poverty, exploitation and ignorance, and the provision of opportunities for each human being to reach a basic level of education is seen as having far-reaching consequences of benefit to the quality of life. It can enable every citizen to take an active part in activities at national and local levels by overcoming the sociopolitical disadvantages deriving from the inability to draw on increasingly widespread sources of written knowledge. And it can have a direct effect on health, occupational productivity, and emotional and intellectual fulfilment.

The wider environment in which learning occurs is changing. With local differences in interpretation and application, both scientific and technological innovations, and developments in political institutions are having a profound impact on daily life, even in communities once thought remote and resistant to outside influences. Not only is the expansion of electronic communications leading to an exponential growth of alphabetic and numeric messages, but the printed media themselves are multiplying the available channels of information. To come to terms with these phenomena, and with their personal, social, cultural, political, economic and vocational effects, at least a basic level of education is a prerequisite. Moreover, the worldwide trend of accelerating change is likely to continue into the 21st century.

It is therefore urgent to provide Basic Education to all children during the 1990´s so that they can meet the challenges of the 21st century. Universal Primary Education (UPE) is indispensable for the eradication of illiteracy and the attainment of this basic level of education, which is in turn the foundation for further learning. The availability and quality of primary education are therefore of major significance for the success of each person´s inescapable process of lifelong education.

A century ago UPE was still a utopian ideal, even in many of the richer, industrially developed countries where it has now become the norm. UPE is spreading, both as a worldwide goal of national education policies and as a reality, and children´s right to education has been acknowledged in internationally accepted principles. Article 26 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights states that everyone has the right to education, and that elementary education shall be free. In 1959 the United Nations General Assembly adopted in addition the Declaration of the Rights of the Child, according to which:

> " The child is entitled to receive education, which shall be free and compulsory, at least in the elementary stages. He shall be given an education which will promote his general culture, and enable him on a basis of equal opportunity to develop his abilities, his individual judgement, and his sense of moral and social reponsibility, and to become a useful member of society." (Principle 7)

The spread of UPE has not, however, outpaced demographic growth. The following projection of world population growth, dating from 1978, is still valid:[1]

	1950		1975		2000	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
World Total	2,513	100.0	4,033	100.0	6,199	100.0
More developed regions	832	33.1	1,093	27.1	1,272	20.5
Less developed regions	1,681	66.9	2,940	72.9	4,927	79.5
Africa	219	8.7	406	10.1	828	13.4
East Asia	673	26.8	1,063	26.3	1,406	22,7
South Asia	706	28.1	1,255	31.1	2,206	35.5
Latin America	164	6.5	323	8.0	608	9.8
Oceania	13	.5	22	.5	30	.5
Europe & USSR	572	22.8	728	18.1	832	13.4
North America	166	6.6	236	5.9	289	4.7

Source: United Nations 1978 Assessment

Because of the rapid growth of the total population, all of whom are potential clients of education systems, the absolute number of illiterates in the world is growing, although the percentage of children receiving education has also gone up. It is estimated by Unesco that there are still over 100 million children aged 6-11 out of school, while a much larger number receive inadequate primary education and drop out of school prematurely, before they achieve permanent literacy or acquire adequate basic education. Those over the age of 11 also need to be reached before they become the next generation of illiterate adults.

It is, however, inadequate to plan for a quantitative expansion of formal and nonformal Basic Education without consideration for its quality. Nor are the changing circumstances and demands of present and potential learners always met by conventional curricula: Unesco proposes that raising the quality of primary schooling "may take the form of promoting the renewal and reorganisation of the contents of curricula so that they are increasingly relevant to the cultural, social, economic and natural environment."[2] It is seen from UIE's study that nonformal alternative approaches are reaching out-of-school children, particularly those who have shown resistance to existing provision.

Nonformal education (NFE) has played a significant part in educational provision over the last twenty years, but it has yet to be studied and acknowledged as an integral part of the worldwide strategy for the eradication of illiteracy and the promotion of Basic Education.[3] With the growing concern to make education available to all, it is urgently necessary to take nonformal, non-conventional and alternative approaches into consideration.

We therefore stress two interconnected elements necessary for the attainment of Basic Education for All. The first is a "learning needs" approach, and the second is the place of nonformal, alternative approaches to the provision of primary education. These can respond to the actual situations of out-of-school children wherever formal education is impracticable. The nonformal approaches documented by UIE provide some evidence to support these contentions.

2. PURPOSE OF THE PRESENT STUDY

If we are to work towards Basic Education for All, it will be efficacious to identify those groups which do not reach this level, and to study the methods used for meeting their educational needs.

This study therefore has the following two main aims:

1) To review very briefly the progress made so far towards UPE and Basic Eucation for All, and in particular to shed light on the problems preventing the successful learning by *out-of-school children*.

2) To identify some recent initiatives that have used alternative and nonformal approaches to primary level education, and to analyse certain conceptual and operational characteristics of those initiatives in order to draw lessons for possible future action by different countries or regions.

The overall intention is to contribute to the global commitment to action in the 1990´s, starting with International Literacy Year and the World Conference on Education for All, to be organised in 1990 by UNDP, UNESCO, UNICEF and the World Bank. The World Conference is expected to become a major stimulus for renewed efforts worldwide to meet basic learning needs for all, including out-of-school children.

3. THE PROBLEM

Attempts made so far to achieve UPE through the expansion and strengthening of the formal school system have been successful, but remain inadequate to meet in full the goal of UPE. Some countries have marginal groups in economically underdeveloped areas; there are still agrarian societies in which the rural masses do not enter school as a matter of course; and even where enrolment is high, children drop out before reaching a basic level of education.

3.1. Low Enrolment and Drop-out

Enrolment rates at the primary education level have risen, but at the lower end of the range they are still insufficient:

First level Education: Gross Enrolment Rates

	Range 1975	Range 1985
Developed Countries	94-109%	95-114%
Africa	16-125%	23*-139%
Asia and the Pacific	9-137%	18-129%
Latin America and the Caribbean	60-124%	70-133%

*1983 figure

Source: Unesco Office of Statistics, 1987

In 1985 there were 16 countries where the gross enrolment rate for primary education was below 60%: 13 in Africa and three in Asia.

Even if we take an example of an apparently high enrolment rate, this does not mean that all children benefit from their initial school registration. In India, enrolment in grades I-V (ages 6-11) is already 94%, but drops to 50% for grades VI-VIII (ages 11-14):

"The very fact that 73% of the children do not finish the primary stage (7th or 8th standards), and in spite of the fact that 90% of the villages have primary schools, that 63% of the population is still illiterate after 40 years of independence proves without a shadow of a doubt that unless new educational structures are created the drop-out rate will continue."[4]

Moreover:

"In 1981-82, while the Gross Enrolment Rate (GER) for the 6-11 age group was reported as 83.1 percent on the basis of statewise education statistics, the Census of 1981 reported only 47.15 percent of children of that age attending primary schools. Obviously, therefore, the enrolment of a child in school cannot be taken as a reliable indicator of the child's school attendance. Therefore, the GER as an indicator of progress in universalisation of primary education is being seriously questioned."[5]

According to a World Bank report, in Peru, with a gross enrolment rate at the primary level of 122 (1985), "each day, 15% of all urban Peruvian students and 30% of rural children reportedly are absent from school."[6]

There are thus a number of variants on inadequate attendance: either complete non-enrolment, premature drop-out, or erratic attendance which generally culminates in drop-out and relapse into illiteracy. (This accounts for some of the distortion in the gross enrolment figures, as students rejoin grades which they have failed to complete.)

Unicef lists 33 countries where fewer than 50% of those enrolled in Grade 1 finish primary education, so that in extreme cases a low initial enrolment rate is more than halved again by desertion (e.g. Chad, 38% enrolment, of which 29% completion; Bhutan 25% enrolment, 25% completion).[7] There are differences in the manner in which statistics are collected, and in the length of the primary cycle of education, but the general picture given by these figures is not thereby invalidated. It is not disputed that there are worldwide more than 100 million children of primary school age out of school.

3.2. Causes of Non-Attendance

Various causes can be traced. Some are easily defined, such as inaccessibility of schools or mobility of parents, but all are interconnected in a complex nexus of economic and social factors:

3.2.1. Gender Discrimination

Girls are markedly under-represented in school enrolment and attendance in some countries. Unesco statistics for 1985 show 10 countries in which the proportion of girls in the primary education enrolment total is less than 35%:

Afghanistan (31%)
Bhutan (34%)
Guinea (32%)
Nepal (29%)
People's Republic of Yemen (26%)
Benin (34%)
Chad (27%)
Guinea-Bissau (34&)
Pakistan (32%)
Yemen Arab Republic (16%)

Source: Unesco Office of Statistics 1987.

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The great disparity between countries in respect to female enrolment reflects varied economic and social perceptions and realities. The most significant are that girls are held to be a greater economic asset in domestic pursuits than boys, and from a younger age; that expenditure on girls' education has no visible return in the context of their future occupations as women; and that segregated single sex schools for girls receive fewer resources than those for boys.[8]

3.2.2. Sociopolitical Disadvantage

Members of indigenous or migrant minorities, defined by ethnicity, class, caste, language or some other indicator, may not be provided with suitable schooling, or may reject the formal system of the majority as alien.

3.2.3. Child Labour

Some children have no choice but to work, to help to support their families or to support themselves, so that they cannot attend full-time school. Those children engaged in seasonal undertakings, as in agriculture, may have at least part of their school year disrupted, while for all children there are marginal expenses of education, even when tuition is free, and in subsistence economies the loss of a child's labour is a significant cost to the family. Moreover, employers who engage and exploit children have an interest in continuing the arrangement because child labour is cheap.

3.2.4. Negative Perceptions of the Uses of Literacy

Parental literacy and children's completion of primary education show a close correlation, and a high adult literacy rate of some 70 % is the threshold for achieving UPE by conventional means. It is therefore impossible to dissociate the achievement of Basic Education for All from the creation and maintenance of a literate society.

It is clear that these and other causes of children's being out of school are interlinked and overlap, and do not exclude the consequences of war, natural disaster, drug abuse and prostitution. As Unicef has pointed out, the world now has 25 to 30 million refugees and displaced persons, the majority of whom are children.[9]

4. SOME INNOVATIVE INITIATIVES

In the face of the multiple aspects of the problem of non-attendance, there is a need to devise pragmatic approaches which respond to the varying circumstances and needs of children who are still out of school. Nonformal and non-conventional programmes can provide the necessary flexibility, adaptability and innovativeness in developing relevant learning structures and curricula. This in turn implies that policy makers and educational planners should be fully aware of the capacity of nonformal, alternative structures to offer a parallel, but by no means inferior mode of education.

We have identified innovative, non-conventional approaches in more than a dozen countries which could stimulate action elsewhere. Before discussing the conceptual and operational aspects of these, we give here a brief description of the purpose and context of the projects considered to offer the most easily transferable features.

4.1. Satellite Schools and NGOs in Bangladesh

Bangladesh has a system of community learning centres (Satellite Schools) where out-of-school children are encouraged to follow classes; special arrangements are made particularly for girls. Teachers are appointed and paid by the community.[10] Schools for child labourers are also being set up in industrial areas. The World Bank has estimated that despite government efforts 40 % of children of primary age cannot be accommodated in the foreseeable future, and the help of voluntary organisations has therefore been enlisted. *Swanirvar Bangladesh* (Self-reliant Bangladesh), for example, has opened 6 schools with flexible admission and timing, to offer a conventional curriculum to those otherwise denied it.[11]

4.2. Local Learning Centres in Brazil[12]

Educational action to provide first level schooling for those who have had no access to schools is now implemented through State and/or County Education Secretariats and private educational institutions. Until 1985, the Brazilian Literacy Movement (MOBRAL) was charged by the Ministry of Education with assisting with this work, particularly in respect of programme design and training. Projects were developed for the unenrolled population aged 7 - 14 through localised administration and teaching posts. In 1985 some 30 % of the age group were out of school. A new institution, EDUCAR, has now taken over much of MOBRAL'S responsibility, but the study conducted for UIE concentrated on the earlier phase.

4.3. Alternative Centres in Burundi[13]

As a complement to the formal primary system, which reaches 71 % of the age group (1989), the "Paraschool Education" department of the Ministry of Education runs 56 Polyvalent Education Centres for 1500 students. Until UPE is achieved, it also relies on the support of centres organised and financed by the Catholic and Protestant churches. The Catholic *Yagamukama* centres offer the most widespread and effective nonformal system (over 112,000 pupils in 1989). As formal primary education spreads, the Yagamukama will concentrate more on the 12 - 14 age group, to meet the needs of school drop-outs. The intention of all NFE is functionality and adaptation to rural life.

4.4. Teaching Stations in China[14]

Although the primary school enrolment rate has reached 95 %, there remain large numbers of unschooled children in mountainous areas, border areas, pasture lands and areas of national minorities. To serve their needs, over 200,000 nonformal "Teaching Stations" function all over the country. These offer classes at varied times of the day in locations convenient to learners: some are mobile and others have boarding facilities. The same curriculum as that for formal schools is followed, but it is covered in four fifths of the time required for formal education.

4.5. Programmes for Marginalised Children in Colombia

Although there is 90 % enrolment in primary school, the problem of drop-out adds to the difficulty of meeting the needs of the remaining population. Three typical non-governmental initiatives are reported: one for children working to help support their families on cotton and cattle farms paying low wages (a Jesuit Research Centre in Popular Education project); one for the children of peasants who have migrated to a city and are living in an illegally established suburb (organised by the Christian Clarethian Community);[15] and one, the most ambitious, aimed at reintegrating

into society the street children of Bogotá and other major cities (the Bosconia-La Florida Programme).[16]

4.6. One-Class Schools in Egypt[17]

These schools grew out of the age-old Egyptian system of Koranic education known as *Kuttab*, in which each school was conducted by a schoolmaster and a reciter of the Koran. The study of the whole Koran, and the acquisition of reading, writing and arithmetic were its aims. In 1975 a plan was devised to open new one-class schools for three hours per day, five days a week, for pupils aged 6-15 who had no school in their area, had dropped out, or had for various reasons not attended school. Within the class, pupils are grouped according to their level of learning. The new schools continue to offer basic education in alliance with religious instruction.

4.7. Basic Development Education Programme for Children and Adults in Ethiopia [18]

This is an integrated nonformal education for children and adults, established within the National Literacy Campaign addressed to the whole population aged 8-49. Learning Centres and Community Skill Training Centres have been set up. Teachers are mainly volunteers, and flexible schedules ensure that if children have to work in the morning they can attend school in the evenings. It is intended thereby to compensate for the low primary school enrolment rate of 35 %, which co-exists with a literacy rate that has risen from 7 % to 71 % since 1974.

4.8. Nonformal Primary Education Centres in India

In the context of low attendance, high drop-out and high gender discrimination rates, the State Governments and NGOs have set up nonformal education centres with assistance from the Central Government as an alternative to the formal school system.[19] The centres are located in any convenient place in the community: it could be a school or a building made available by the community or even the house of the instructor. A common model is the part-time evening class, with a paid instructor, the provision of basic facilities and a supervisory scheme. Centres exclusively for girls have been created. The national scheme has adopted many of the points of a local project mounted in 1979-85 by the Indian Institute of Education (IIE), Pune, Maharashtra State. Under the IIE project a total of 4,332 pupils aged 9-14 were reached through 263 classes.[20] The majority were girls, and the social groups served were principally tribals, marginal farmers and landless labourers. The project emphasised stimulation and involvement of the community, portable teaching materials, and stress-free evaluation. With financial assistance from the national Ministry of Human Resource Development, the IIE is now training functionaries of voluntary agencies engaged in NFE.

4.9. Nonformal Learning Centres for Children of Fishing Communities in Indonesia[21]

The Government has a national NFE service organised under a Director General for Education, with provincial, district, sub-district and village structures to support extensive nonformal learning groups, skills training and income generation for children and adults in the age range 7 - 44. Among the remaining groups of children not enrolled in school are those of some communities engaged in fishing and fish processing, where drop-out is also high. Small learning groups of these children meet in the morning or evening in order not to encroach on the times of fishing.

4.10. "Nai Roshni" Classes in Pakistan[22]

Pakistan established a network of *Nai Roshni* ('new light' in Urdu) classes for young illiterates. These were aimed specifically at children over ten who had missed primary schooling. The age range was relaxed to accommodate young adults, especially girls, who had missed school. Daily classes of three hours duration were held in the afternoons in government primary schools. This scheme, which is now subject to revision, condenses the normal five-year primary course into two years and aims at equipping the children with the basic literacy and numeracy skills to qualify them for secondary education.

4.11. The Mobile Tent School in the Philippines[23]

There are several ethnic minorities and tribal groups living on islands and in the mountains. Whole families move between villages and farms in search of work, and can move from village to jungle if under external pressure. The Mobile Tent School, conducted as a project of the Ministry of Education, Culture and Sports under the Programme of Decentralized Educational Development (PRODED), provides education to one such mobile ethnic minority. The National Government has developed many NFE programmes under its community education section and the PRODED programme.

4.12. Nonformal Learning Centres in Sri Lanka[24]

Sri Lanka has attained a 90 % primary school enrolment, but to the 10 % who are unenrolled must be added the 20 % who drop out. As NFE only looks after 6-7 % of these, the proportion of adult illiterates is increasing, and the national literacy rate is actually declining. Under the programme of the NFE Section of the Ministry of Education, Learning Activity Centres have been set up in remote areas, and Literacy Centres are established in deprived low-income areas. Particular factors affecting the country are migration of labour to the Gulf and the ethnic conflict. UNHCR has assisted with funds for refugees returning to their homes, and for the development of nonformal education programmes.

4.13. Other Examples[25]

Reference may also be made to the Accelerated Schooling System established for out-of-school children aged 8 - 14 in *Nepal*.[26] This is an experiment run by the Ministry of Education and Culture since 1987 and closely linked to the formal system. In both *Kenya* and *Liberia* Basic Education programmes are run to care for street children, by NGOs and the government respectively. In Liberia, a large minority of Muslims have kept out of missionary schools. The government is trying to meet their demands for Arabic education by setting up combined English/Arabic schools.

5. SOME CONCEPTUAL ASPECTS

It will be apparent that there are certain common characteristics of some of the NFE initiatives presented above, and that any evaluation of nonformal approaches should consider their effectiveness both in their own terms and in relation to the formal primary education system and the goal of UPE and Basic Education for All. The following factors provide a conceptual framework for considering how NFE can meet basic learning needs.

5.1. Flexibility of Nonformal Learning

Particularly where the formal system is unable to meet the educational needs of those whose pattern of life does not coincide with its preconceptions, or where those who have dropped out are unable or disinclined to rejoin the conventional educational ladder, NFE can respond. It is different in its immediate objectives, and is flexible and adaptable with regard to:

- age range in relation to level of course
- place of holding classes
- grade structure within a group
- frequency and timing of classes
- regularity of attendance
- duration of courses
- teaching methodology and content of curriculum
- curricular demands for accreditation
- modes of evaluation and testing

This flexibility means that nonformal approaches may in fact be better suited than formal education to meeting the basic learning needs of children who are out of school for the reasons we have enumerated.

5.2. Relationship between Formal, Nonformal and Informal Learning

NFE does not exist in a social vacuum, and therefore to be effective has to have strong horizontal linkages to the community environment and the pre-existing modes of informal learning. These include the influences of family, elders, peer groups, religious and political institutions, employers, social and cultural events, and the mass media.

Similarly, NFE fails to be a true alternative if there is a disadvantageous dichotomy between it and formal education. A Unesco/Unicef Regional Seminar on UPE in Latin America has concluded that:

> "formal and nonformal education must be conceived as mutually complementary. Nonformal programmes must be completed by establishing and developing links with formal education. On the other hand, formal programmes, methods, and organization must be more flexible and nonformal whenever possible... The main danger is that two educational systems of different quality and prestige will develop, and thus contribute to perpetuating and increasing the existing socio-economic disparities."[27]

This danger must be overcome. It therefore needs to be recognised that NFE has a valid role to play in educational provision because it can make a contribution which formal education cannot. What concerns us in this report is the place of nonformal approaches to education for children, but these should be seen as part of a broader vision in which

> "formal, nonformal and informal modes of learning can and should constitute the building blocks of a nationwide comprehensive learning network in each country cemented into one meaningful mosaic by the concept of lifelong and recurrent learning opportunities for all."[28]

5.3. Motivation, Relevance and Functionality

Motivation can be increased by improvements in the physical environment of learning (with material and financial implications) and by high quality of instruction (with implications for

preservice and inservice training), but also by giving close attention to the content of learning. The formal school curriculum organised according to grades and age levels of pupils attending school full-time is loaded with subject matter, much of which is determined by the certification requirements of the next stage of formal education rather than by the starting point of the learners. Some out-of-school children are literate, others semi-literate and others quite illiterate. They have a variety of life experience, needs and aspirations, and since many of them come from remote rural or marginal urban areas, the curriculum has to be closely related to the realities of those situations and to their true potential for transformation. Relevant curricula are functional, that is, they enable learners to function more effectively in their likely situations, and if such functionality is evident, it increases motivation.

5.4. Development Needs

Beyond functionality perceived from an educational standpoint, national and local development goals may be taken into account in the flexibility of NFE. Social and individual development needs may be expressed in terms of skills, attitudes, etc., as vocational or economic goals, or more generally as widening of intellectual and aesthetic understanding.

5.5. Specific Learning Needs

For immediate functionality and for development certain learning needs are common. These are essentially those of basic or initial literacy: reading, writing, and computation. More specific needs relate to the social, cultural, economic and geographical situation. This is seen, for example, in our examples of street children, fishing communities, itinerant mountain dwellers or subsistence farmers. In the majority of formal systems, functional learning needs lack specificity, even if functionality is a predominant aim of national development. Specific learning needs, which set out to close the gap between the knowledge, awareness, attitudes and skills learners possess at the outset, and the intended level of achievement, thus derive from development needs but are refined and expanded by the precise context.

6. SOME MAJOR OPERATIONAL ELEMENTS

In comparing the innovative projects and programmes presented under point (4) above we bear in mind the foregoing conceptual framework, and the urgent need to find feasible answers to the problem described earlier. We generally refer to these projects here by their country: references will be found under Notes 10 to 26.

The projects we have studied set out to meet the needs of very varied target groups of children. The substantive details of the characteristics of out-of-school children vary from country to country, but there are certain features in common between many of the children who need support:

- they are older than the usual primary education age range, though not yet adult;
- they need to work at least part-time;
- they suffer social and economic disadvantage compared with other members of their national society;
- they lack access to even the simplest learning aids such as paper and pencil.

Poverty is a factor common to those countries with a high drop-out rate. Education can therefore hardly fail to be seen as part of a wider search for practicable development and economic advance.

6.1. Alternative Nonformal Arrangements

We shall concentrate on what can be done immediately to meet the needs of out-of-school children. The arrangements for learning which have been instituted naturally vary according to the target groups, but they cannot fail to be influenced by the nature of the body organising the project and the physical and human resources available.

6.1.1. Place of Learning

In Pakistan, mosques are extensively used to provide shelter for new primary schools, and additional simple buildings have been erected by the Federal Government in urban areas. As a nonformal complement, school buildings are used in the afternoons and evenings, with timings adjusted to the convenience of learners. The use of religious buildings is widespread. Mosques are also used in Egypt, and the buildings of all religions are used extensively in India.

Intensive use of school buildings out of normal school hours is an obvious possibility where the NFE programme is managed by the same education authority. This is the approach generally adopted in Sri Lanka, as in the majority of the regions of China, where school buildings are accessible. In India, a wide variety of sites is used by agreement between the teacher, the learners and the owner or authority in question. Not only schools and religious buildings, but local authority premises, agricultural buildings, private houses and even verandas, outhouses or sheds become temporary places of learning, wherever there can be a minimum of light and shelter.

There are limits to the use of buildings other than schools.The MOBRAL Foundation of Brazil, while not tied to schools, had clear criteria for selecting sites:

- cleanliness and sanitary facilities;
- furniture and equipment appropriate for the learning activities, although they might be simple;
- space and furniture adequate for the size of group;
- the possibility of preparing and/or distributing lunch.

This last is peculiar to all-day programmes of particular relevance to non-working children in need of pastoral care, and none of these criteria has a universal standard, with the exception of minimum health requirements. In cases of particular need, and in keeping with the lifestyle of the learners, an unconventional approach may have to be adopted, such as the Mobile Tent School for the Agta ethnic minority of the Cagayan Valley on remote north-eastern Luzon, in the Philippines.

6.1.2. Time and Duration of Learning

Among the fishing communities of Cirebon District, northern Java, in Indonesia, courses take place outside the regular morning hours of formal classes, at varying times according to the fishing activities of the learning groups. In the project of the Colombian Research Centre in Popular Education (CINEP), children come to the nonformal school after work or during their free time,

to study independently or in small groups. Such timings are common, especially where school buildings are used out of hours.

In Burundi, on the other hand, NFE Centres are seen as a more direct replacement for the insufficient number of primary schools, and the timetable occupies the normal school day, 8.00 - 15.00 hours, six days a week.

In the case of the Colombian Bosconia-La Florida project, the initial stage is designed to place street children under no pressure by allowing them to drop in and out of a day centre. In due course they become regular borders, but the intention here is to compensate for social deprivation as well as lack of schooling. The stages of progression may be summarised as follows:

Stage 1: Operation Friendship
This stage takes place on the streets. The educators visit the "camadas" (groups of children who sleep together) and gain the confidence of the boys by organising group activities that the children enjoy. They then invite them to visit the Patio, a day club.

Stage 2: Motivation
The second stage takes place in the "house of freedom", called "Liberia". There, besides food, recreation, hygiene and health services, groups of 15 to 20 boys are given the opportunity to stay to sleep for 30 nights. After this period they are requested to stay on the streets again for three days so that they can compare what the Programme offers them with their previous life.

Stage 3: Personalisation
Personalisation starts when the boys enter the Programme. Each new group is received in Bosconia (the house where they will live, named after Saint John Bosco) with a big party in their honour. During this stage of the Programme begins the provision of basic primary education.

Stage 4: Socialisation
The fourth stage takes place in La Florida, the Republic of the Youngsters. This new environment is based on responsibility and creativity, and provides them with the opportunity to organise, conduct and evaluate all the activities they are involved in, with the help of the educators. Some of the boys who enter this stage still have to complete their primary education (until they finish grade five), while others start the basic secondary education. All of them engage in labour training in the workshops.

Stage 5: Juvenile Industry
This stage provides a passage from sheltered education to integration into the world of work, through vocational training.

Boarding is also used in China for the shortened curriculum offered to mobile groups. NFE Centres in China use very varied patterns of attendance:

- morning study class
- midday study class
- night study class
- every-other-day class
- pasture coaching class

- break-time coaching in planting areas
- mobile coaching
- multi-grade class
- teaching station
- simple boarding schools in border areas, for children of fishermen and minorities

As regards duration, NFE generally demands fewer hours for its programme of primary or basic education than the formal system. In programmes with regular attendance, two years in place of five can be achieved, as in Pakistan. The Philippine Mobile Tent School held its first graduation ceremony after just one year, and its courses were planned in units of one month. The learning groups using progressive modules or individual study have far more varied attainment targets than those using curricula stretching over a longer fixed term, although teachers are naturally engaged for specific periods of time.

6.1.3. Composition of Learning Groups

The remit of NFE varies. Ethiopia makes no formal distinction between children and adults in its National Literacy Campaign. The Indonesian learning groups recognise that children traditionally help their parents in occupational tasks related to fishing, and that they may therefore follow the same course.

MOBRAL was charged with providing education to the 9-14 out-of-school age group, although the formal Brazilian system begins at age seven. Similarly, the pupils of the six levels of the Yagamukama Centres in Burundi have to be nine years old, and are rarely over 16. The older starting age reflects the fact that NFE is seen as a safety net for those who have missed, or dropped out from, the formal system. Other schemes are more flexible, and accept children well over the normal primary school age, but although there is no universal upper age limit to nonformal primary education, those aged over 15 are commonly the concern of adult education provision. In Colombia, adult NFE provision officially extends downwards to include even those aged eight years and over.

This is not necessarily an inappropriate device, as children aged nine years or more who have been working in some capacity are far more mature than six-year-old primary school entrants with little beyond domestic experience. The pupils of NFE programmes can therefore learn more quickly.

At the primary level, before vocational differentiation, the sexes are not always segregated. They are separated in the residential stages of the Colombian Bosconia-La Florida project, partly on account of their premature sexual experiences. Single sex groups are also necessary where parents otherwise refuse to enrol girls. Such is the situation in Pakistan, where mixed enrolment in all formal primary school classes I-III was introduced in principle in the national Education Policy of 1979.

As regards class size, this varies from small learning groups up to more than 50 pupils (in Burundi), according to the location, target group, funding and human resources available.

There is thus wide variation in the composition of classes and the arrangements made for learning. The viability of nonformal structures as alternatives to formal schooling has nonetheless been clearly established. The intrinsic flexibility of NFE means that where resources are limited, children who would otherwise remain out of school can be accommodated, and where funds are

more generous, a nonformal approach can still be relevant. There is a discernible trend of acceptance that learning is not restricted to schools, and that those who cannot advance through the formal system in an age cohort may not be abandoned or ignored.

6.2. Curriculum

NFE contains within itself a progression from initial literacy learning up to the level of basic education, at which point basic learning needs are met. Learners may join NFE classes at any time in any of these three phases - literacy, post-literacy and continuing education up to the basic minimum. Although the traditional grading by age of the formal system will not apply, provision for progression and reinforcement of learning has to be built into the NFE curriculum.

6.2.1. Content and Objectives

There are differences between formal and nonformal education in the aims and objectives of the curriculum in the context of the environment, culture and aspiration of out-of-school learners. In consequence, the content shows some variation.

China has taken the formal curriculum as its starting point, and maintains the subject terminology:

- Chinese language
  - Reading
  - Composition
  - Handwriting
- Mathematics
- Science
- Physical Education
- Music and Arts

Other countries may stress the confessional or occupational content of NFE. The origin of the Egyptian One-Class School is the Kuttab system of Koranic education, which involved learning the Koran by rote, reading, writing, arithmetic and calligraphy. This is reflected in the modern curriculum, which still gives predominance to religious education, Arabic language and arithmetic. The content and general objectives are thus very similar to those of the Yagamukama schools of Burundi, where Roman Catholic religious instruction accounts for a quarter of class time.

The curricula of the centres mentioned so far in this section are developed centrally by a ministry or NGO. The same applies in Indonesia, but the emphasis is clearly on rural functionality and occupational productivity. The content of the 100 booklets in the *Kejar* modular learning package is based on the following subject areas:

- literacy: reading, writing, arithmetic
- religious and spiritual teachings based on the belief in one God
- family and community life
- environmental awareness
- family welfare education
- career/vocational orientation

- community health
- sports
- music
- gardening/agriculture/forestry
- customs
- language

Examples of the topics of the reading booklets are:

- planting fruit trees (package 12)
- poultry (package 13)
- bee keeping (package 43)
- livestock products (package 57)
- weaving palm leaves (package 85)

In Latin America, the significant role of NGOs means that the curriculum is frequently negotiated locally in order to meet basic learning needs. Even MOBRAL, with a national commission from the Brazilian government, ensured that elements of the curriculum varied from state to state, and locality to locality.

India, on account of its internal divergences and the integration of NGOs into a national programme promoted by Central and State governments, provides a number of curricular models akin to those elsewhere:

- the formal education model, following similar courses to formal primary schools;
- the condensed formal model, in which significant topics from social sciences, natural sciences, mathematics and languages are concentrated into one set of reading texts;
- the integrated model, in which greater emphasis is placed in the selection of topics on improvement of the quality of life;
- the problem-based model, in which a thematic approach is taken to meet the learners' situation, and subject boundaries are not observed; and
- the developmental model, followed by most of the NGOs, and incorporating collaboration with development agencies in income generating activities.

Regardless of the model, the educational policy of 1986 provides that all nonformal curricula should cover basic minimum learning objectives laid down by the National Council of Educational Research and Training.

In line with development principles, there is sometimes cooperation between various ministries and outside agencies because of the need to depart entirely from the formal curriculum. This was the case with the Philippines' Mobile Tent School, where the following apportionment occurred:

Family and Community life	Ministry of Education, Culture and Sports (MECS)
Literacy and Numeracy	MECS and Summer Institute of Linguistics
Health and Nutrition	Ministry of Health

Livelihood	Ministry of Agriculture; National Manpower and Youth Council; Ministry of Social Services and Development

Finally, the curriculum approved by the National Curriculum and Textbook Board of Bangladesh may be taken as an example of what is typical of NFE. At the primary level, besides language and elementary mathematics, pupils are taught social science (sanitation, nutrition, health and family planning), games, social and human values, and a relevant livelihood. At the second stage this is taken further through vocational training (farming, food processing or light industrial skills). Exposure to agriculture and crafts is greater than in the formal system, although the same learning materials may be used in relevant subjects. In contrast to the formal system, immediate functionality is stressed.

In sum, therefore, the curriculum for out-of-school children may be seen to consist of three main components which accord with basic learning needs:

(i) Literacy and numeracy skills provided through language(s) and elementary mathematics;
(ii) Social studies related to local conditions, which should include an understanding of the environment and its development; civic rights and responsibilities, the political and administrative structure of the country and its cultural heritage;
(iii) Science and technology, sufficient and appropriate for dealing with daily life problems and improving vocational capacities for enhancing their economic conditions.

6.2.2. Methods, Materials and Media

Unlike formal classes, NFE groups are heterogeneous in regard to age and previous educational experience. There are multigrade NFE classes with flexible entry and exit points, learners are frequently allowed to progress at their own pace, and the programme is compressed into a shorter time than formal education. Appropriate methodologies have to be flexible enough to take these structural features into account, as well as being suited to the cultural context, the availability of materials and the agreed aims of the course.

Because of the disparity between pupils, it is frequently necessary to form groups of learners by level of competence. This is done in Egyptian One-Class Schools on the basis of a written and oral test. In Bangladesh and Pakistan groups are also formed, and individual tuition is used when necessary and practicable. The Colombian CINEP project has developed task cards for individual work, although it favours collaboration between pupils to overcome excessive individualism.

On account of their very specific situations, the Mobile Tent School of the Philippines and the Colombian Bosconia-La Florida project have had to develop particular techniques. In the first case, the learners had a cultural aversion to anyone's displaying superior knowledge, including the teacher; and in the second case subject knowledge is matched in importance by affectionate discipline and integration of the pupils in decision making. This has been marred by a rapid staff turnover on account of the stressful nature of the work. The class atmosphere, and the involvement of the community through Village Education Committees, were also stressed in the project of the Indian Institute of Education.

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Burundi, on the other hand, retains a hierarchical didactic approach, but it must be remembered that the classes are excessively large, making the management of group work very difficult.

Self-learning modules are helpful for group or individual work. These have been developed centrally in Indonesia, Sri Lanka and Pakistan, and were used in the Philippines, where the various authorities contributed elements to the specific project. Course books have also been written and prescribed by a central organisation, such as is the case in China and in the Yagamukama centres of Burundi, where Caritas provides the materials.

It is impracticable to expect pedagogically sound and relevant materials to be produced at a very local level. It is, however, possible for tutors and/or supervisors to be eclectic in their choice of materials where this is permitted. MOBRAL used selected NFE material from programmes for Brazilian adults, for example, and even where primary school textbooks are used, as in Bangladesh and Pakistan, some selectivity is possible and necessary, if only because of the shortening of the curriculum.

There does not appear to be great use made of modern electronic media. Sri Lanka has developed some cassettes (mainly for aesthetic education), and in Colombia the educational broadcasts of INRAVISION are used. This is an area of possible expansion, but it is more difficult to organise and support a children's listening group than it is an adult circle. Without sound and video recorders, it is also difficult to use broadcasts within courses meeting at flexible times.

The language of instruction and of written teaching materials or audio media is subject to much discussion. In principle, at the primary level the mother tongue should be adopted. Ethiopia now uses 14 regional languages, for example, and all of the materials of the Mobile Tent School in the Philippines were translated into the language of the Agta people. There are practical difficulties of time, expertise and money in some instances, and there is a need to compromise between cultural recognition and the provision of chances of employment and social integration. A form of bilingualism is therefore often appropriate.

As a summary, it may be seen that successful methods and materials display the following characteristics:

- Methods of teaching and learning conform to the needs of the learner and to his or her environment, rather than being based on what is dictated by outside authorities. Teachers and supervisors therefore need to know the culture of the learners.
- Indigenous materials and methods are suitably adapted.
- An informal atmosphere is maintained in which learning can take place free from anxiety.
- Learners may progress at their own pace without a rigid grade structure.
- Where practicable, the teacher uses the first language of the learners, gradually introducing if necessary the language used for commercial and administrative purposes.

6.2.3. Accreditation, Evaluation and Comparability with the Formal System

NFE is organised in countries where there are both high and low rates of progression to secondary and vocational education. Nonformal primary education need therefore not necessarily prepare students for transfer to the formal system. There is, however, sometimes at least a notional equivalence between levels. Commonly this is similar to what was at first envisaged in Sri Lanka:

NFE	Formal Primary Education
Level 1	Grades I and II
Level 2	Grades III and IV
Level 3	Grades V

It has now been realised that because of the integrated nature of the curriculum and the varied prior knowledge and experience of learners, such a simple analogy is not possible.

Where there is a likelihood of further education being accessible, as in Brazil, it is necessary that NFE should not disadvantage its graduates in relation to formal primary school pupils: MOBRAL therefore stressed that its programmes provided a basis for higher schooling. It is not inevitable that final examinations or modes of continuous assessment should be identical between formal and nonformal systems, but it is to be anticipated that NFE will become further systematised, and will rely on assessments and tests to certificate pupils' achievements. While some countries continue to adopt the methods and tools used for evaluation in their formal sector, several have ventured to try out new techniques especially suited to nonformal learning situations.

Among the innovations of the Indian Institute of Education project was "stress-free evaluation". As with any other NFE programme, its credibility rested on the results of pupils' attainment tests, especially in literacy and numeracy. Since pupils had progressed at their own individual pace, uniform tests would have been inappropriate, and the project designers also wished to avoid both placing the teacher under pressure to exaggerate pass rates and giving the pupils the temptation of copying others' answers rather than proving their own mastery. It was therefore decided that an external teacher should evaluate several classes together during a Children's Fair. A central village would be selected for the Fair, to which pupils from every class within a five kilometre radius would come in a procession. The Fair was to be held at the end of each semester of five and a half months, and for some of the girls, it was the first opportunity to leave their village. In the morning of the Fair, pupils from different classes exhibited their skills in drawing, singing, story telling and sports and games. In the afternoon, groups of children from each class sat down to tackle the test materials, of which several sets were available. The independent evaluator then completed detailed evaluation sheets, which were used when the class met for the next semester for self-evaluation by the pupils with the advice of the teacher.

The communities from which the children came were intrigued by the openness of this testing programme, and the volunteer teachers, brought up in the secretive formal mode, soon became used to the concept.

There are other instances in India of pupils being assessed internally on literacy and developmental achievement, but learners from many NFE classes take examinations at Grade V with formal school pupils. Similarly, in Bangladesh, NFE graduates may take tests to enter formal secondary school at Grade V, and in Egypt, second grade, fourth grade or final primary certificate examinations permit transfer to formal school. In China, learner achievement is evaluated through a final examination: the successful candidates are awarded a certificate which entitles them to continue their studies in formal or vocational schools.

One consideration in the formalisation of tests is assurance of quality of instruction across a disparate system. In Pakistan, provincial Directorates of NFE set examinations, with this aim in view. We may be moving in some countries towards parallel formal and nonformal systems, each influencing the other, and each offering comparable accreditation. Beyond nonformal primary education, not only is formal secondary education a possibility but there is also a

nonformal adult programme, which can increasingly use distance learning techniques. In 1979, for example, an Open School was established in Delhi, and other Indian States have taken up this idea.

Such a scheme is not everywhere practicable or politically desired. A curious situation arises in Burundi, where Yagamukama pupils are set examinations in the formal mode, which control their progression from class to class, but at the end they are not given certificates. Nor, despite the resemblances, is there easy transference to the formal educational system: graduates return to their rural occupations. This appears to be because the Yagamukama alternative is still regarded as a second best taught by relatively unqualified teachers. In Indonesia, no formal literacy testing is undertaken in NFE, but the groups' progress is monitored by the teachers.

Beyond the evaluation of learners, NFE schemes themselves have been assessed by investigators of the various national ministries (and numerous independent reports have been published in the academic press). Teachers usually report to supervisors, who collate information and pass it on to regional or central authorities. Indices conventionally used in national or local assessments are:

- size of enrolment
- pupil attendance rate
- regularity of teachers' attendance
- teachers' qualifications
- frequency of supervisory visits
- success rates in examinations
- equipment available

In addition, supervisors' reports show up problems of implementation. These are frequently related to the recruitment and training of teachers.

It exceeds the capacity of project organisers to monitor or evaluate wider social measures of attitudinal change in relation to nonformal primary education, particularly as in the case of children of primary school age this is not fully seen until they reach adulthood.

6.3. Teachers and Teacher Training

There are several categories of teachers for nonformal education programmes:

(i) Teachers of the formal system specially trained to teach at primary level working on a part-time basis;
(ii) Teachers who have been specially trained for nonformal education programmes;
(iii) Personnel with expertise in various fields but not necessarily professional teachers, such as social workers, worker educators, "popular educators", vocational trainers, information specialists, extension workers in health, agriculture, etc., skilled workers, craftsmen, etc.;
(iv) Volunteers including retired persons, students, and members of the clergy.

In most developing countries, categories (i), (iii) and (iv) are usually available but it is very rare to find category (ii).

All these categories need preservice or inservice training to function effectively in NFE. Many countries have short inservice programmes which give the minimum competencies, but few

have adequate preservice programmes. Teachers from the formal sector need to familiarise themselves with the characteristics of NFE learners, and may not be able to motivate the community to seek education for children without appropriate training. Swanirvar Bangladesh is perhaps typical of NGOs. Of its 33 teachers employed in 1989, eight are female. One is a graduate, 19 have a higher secondary school certificate, 12 a secondary school certificate, and one did not complete secondary education. Only one is trained as a primary school teacher, but short training courses are arranged with the help of local government education officers, other local specialist resource persons and Swanirvar core trainers. In Pakistan, Nai Roshni supervisors were given inservice training centrally, and two trainers in each District were responsible for training the teachers. In the Yagamukama centres of Burundi, most teachers have completed primary education, and started secondary, and some have been trained, but others who have no training have been put forward by the parishes.

Where there is a religious institution, lay leaders or priests may assist. Egypt's One-Class Schools employ Koran instructors as well as trained teachers and others of suitable education. The problem is reported that the trained teachers lack commitment, regarding contracts in NFE as temporary employment while they wait for a permanent post in the formal sector. The situation in the Bosconia-La Florida project in Colombia shows some similarities. Here it is not the temporary nature of the contracts, but the stressful nature of the work, that causes a high turnover of qualified teaching staff.

The question of commitment and remuneration is problematic. Swanirvar Bangladesh teachers receive only half the salary of government primary school teachers, in line with a philosophy of service. The Indian Institute of Education took great pains to involve and consult the community of the target pupils: it was Education Committees of village leaders who helped to organise meetings and surveys, and who drew up consequent lists of likely volunteer tutors. These were of very varied educational and social status, but all needed training in NFE techniques.

Indonesia and Ethiopia also employ volunteers recruited from the local community, in the latter case under the direct supervision of trained teachers: it is almost certainly necessary to adopt such an approach in a mass literacy campaign with very limited funds.

In certain cases such an arrangement works well. The trained primary school teacher of the Philippines' Mobile Tent School was successfully assisted by two lay graduates of adult literacy courses from the local community, admittedly with a small salary. Reliance on the target community to provide the teachers is of particular benefit where schooling is a new concept amid cultural concepts unfamiliar to outsiders, and where the local language or district is not known to teachers supplied by a formal authority.

The new National Policy on Education in India, promulgated in 1986, admits that training of NFE instructors is inadequate, and envisages training for instructors over 30 days in the first year, and 20 days in each subsequent year. For this purpose District Institutes of Educational Training are being established. It should be emphasised that this represents an upgrading of existing training, since it appears unusual, in India and elsewhere, that training is totally lacking.

6.4. Finance and Other Resources

The principal sources of funds for NFE are:

- national or local government budgets

- NGOs and voluntary donations, including religious organisations
- intergovernmental agencies
- multilateral and bilateral aid

Donations in cash and kind are made by the target community, for example through gifts of land, building labour, teaching materials or voluntary teaching.

By a number of measures NFE is cheaper than formal education. In order to meet its constitutional obligation to provide free education up to Grade VIII, the Government of India, for example, examined "cost-effective" methods of supplementing the formal system in 1977. The resultant programmes were cheaper because of the following factors:

- condensed curriculum (e.g. grades I-V in 2 years)
- shorter daily hours of attendance
- use of community and private premises
- lower pay for instructors

One saving which was not to be made was in the size of class or learning group, notionally set at 25. In the new National Policy on Education of 1986 the simple measuring of cost-effectiveness by cost has been revised, as will be discussed below.

There are two justifications for paying teachers less in NFE than in formal primary schools. In India, besides the reduction in daily hours of teaching, the qualifications demanded of NFE teachers were lower. In practice, primary school teachers often took on the extra work in the evenings, but the principle was established that the lower qualification requirement meant a lower financial status for NFE teachers.

Those working for Swanirvar Bangladesh receive low pay because they work for a charitable NGO and are expected to make their own sacrifice for the good of the community. This principle is taken furthest when teachers work voluntarily, as in Ethiopia, Indonesia or the IIE project.

Figures provided by Pakistan suggest that NFE can cost some 58 % of formal primary education: the cost per pupil is given as Rupees 1911 for NFE to Rupees 3350 for formal education. Swanirvar Bangladesh estimates that its own programme costs only Taka 140 against Taka 268 for the government's own NFE programme. It is clear therefore that a minimum basic education can generally be provided for approximately half the cost of the formal primary system. The Indian Institute of Education estimates the relative cost of NFE up to grade III or IV as less than 50 % of that of full-time primary schooling.

It is the state which undertakes to cover the full programme costs of NFE in some countries, for example in India, Indonesia and Egypt. Where NGOs are funded, this is in accordance with a government scale. Sometimes a commission is given by the government to an autonomous national body which is free to raise its own additional funds (e. g. MOBRAL), but the local programmes in Brazil were in turn funded by both MOBRAL and the State Educational Secretariats. Examples of bilateral and intergovernmental aid are Ethiopia and Sri Lanka respectively. Unicef has been a major partner in Sri Lanka's initiative, and in the research associated with the Indian Institute of Education project.

There are other cases of hybrid funding. The first stages of the Colombian Bosconia-La

Florida project are funded by the City of Bogotá (not by the Ministry of Education), but the final stage - Juvenile Industry - has to cover its own costs by selling its products, notably paving stones, and voluntary donations.

Funding by religious organisations is also of major significance. In the reports examined here, the Roman Catholic Church is predominant, in the Colombian projects and through Caritas in the Yagamukama centres of Burundi. The Umutwenzi centres of that country are supported by Protestant churches.

Even where the government undertakes to fund education, project funds are increased by donations from domestic and foreign individuals and institutions. In China, large educational funds have been raised by individual initiatives, through collections from workmates and neighbours, although only a small percentage of this has been channelled into NFE.

The community contributes in other ways too. Land has been given for the buildings of Bosconia-La Florida and Swanirvar Bangladesh, while elsewhere private buildings are opened to NFE groups. In the government's Satellite Schools project in Bangladesh, the community itself pays the salary of the teacher it has appointed.

Through these means the costs of NFE are kept down. The capacity of the formal education infrastructure can be stretched too, as in the case of the Satellite Schools of Bangladesh or the One-Class Schools of Egypt, where the head of a formal school acts as supervisor to nonformal teachers and learners. Above all, school buildings themselves can be used for several shifts, including NFE groups, and school equipment can be intensively exploited for 10 hours a day rather than four or five. Where these facilities are inadequate, mosques or other public buildings may be available.

The question to be answered is whether this cut-price education is of a quality equal or superior to that of the formal system. The policy adopted in 1986 in India confronts this isssue. Among other points are the need for:

- more technological teaching aids, and development of relevant new materials;
- a learner-centred approach (which means retraining some teachers);
- continuous learner evaluation, and establishment of nonformal evaluation and certification centres;
- adequate lighting and physical facilities;
- extra-curricular cultural activities.

If such a system can be built up, ensuring scholastic achievements equal to those in formal schools, as is intended, then a nonformal education will be available which truly parallels the formal. The criterion for judging the quality of both formal and nonformal education is their capacity to meet basic learning needs. Broadly, NFE costs less, but even if particular circumstances, such as the small size of residual out-of-school populations or the need for new translation or development of materials, causes higher expenditure, the obligation of UPE has to be met. The major criterion is therefore the appropriateness of formal or nonformal structures.

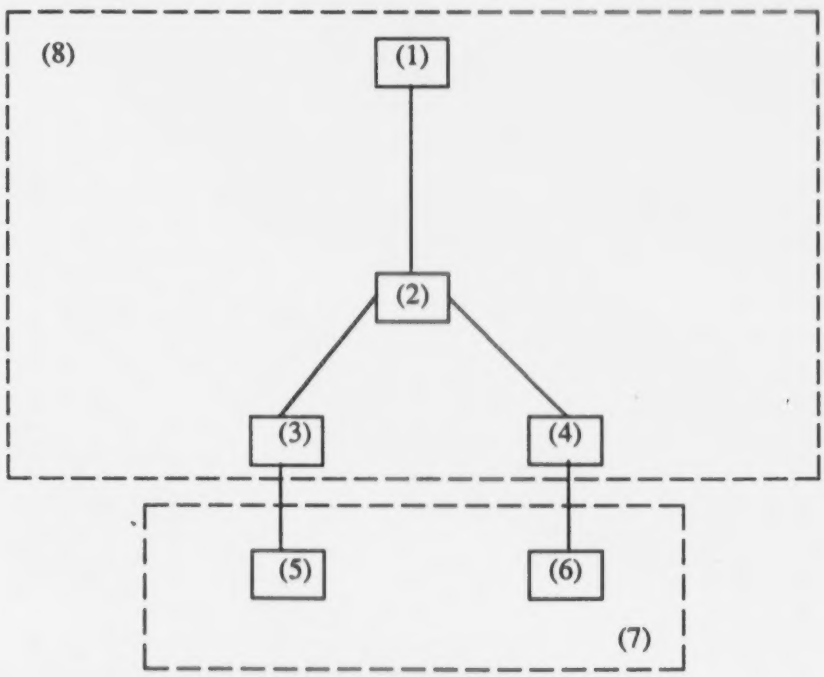
6.5. Policy making, Planning and Organisation

In many cases it is the national government itself which takes major responsibility for a programme, and either establishes NFE within its existing administrative structure or creates a separate department. This has the advantage that there is a clearly expressed policy obligation to

provide NFE, and it does not necessarily imply a lack of flexibility. Monitoring data flows upwards from the local to the national level, and implementation can be conducted at a local level. Ethiopia provides an example of a separate national Department of Nonformal Education, charged with mounting a National Literacy Campaign.

In Bangladesh, the Ministry of Education has established a Mass Literacy Campaign for those aged 11-45, but for younger children links Satellite Schools to formal primary schools, and has provided schools for working children in urban areas. A similar link exists in Egypt, where each Governorate (province) has specialist NFE officers in the education department to advise both the supervisory head teachers and the One-Class teachers. India, on the other hand, had until 1989 a more separate structure under which the NFE section of the Ministry of Human Resource Development gave financial support to NGOs and some State projects. Responsibility for UPE, both formal and nonformal, has now been placed within one department, but there is still a division of functions between ministries or departments in some States. In Karnataka, for example, the Department of Mass Education, separate from the formal education system, oversees both adult education for the 15-35 age group and NFE for children aged 6-14.

A separate structure does not rule out cooperation between educators at the operational level. An integrated approach is taken at the local level in Indonesia, where one of the NFE programmes for primary children, *Pamong*, is described as both school-centred and community-based. This has been represented diagramatically by the Asian Programme of Educational Innovation for Development (APEID) as follows:[29]



1. Local Department of Education (as supervisor)
2. School
3. Instructional Supervisor of in-school pupil
4. Instructional Supervisor of out-of-school children
5. In-school pupils
6. Out-of-school children
7. Clientele of Primary System
8. Implementing Unit

In India, even though there may be separate State departments for formal and nonformal education, District Education Officers may supervise both types of provision, reporting to the monitoring services of each. Cooperation at the local level is also stressed in Nepal, in this case between officers with distinct formal and nonformal responsibilities. For particular projects a greater degree of cooperation is possible. The Mobile Tent School in the Philippines enlisted the support of several ministries in an "ad hoc" manner.

Burundi proposes to institutionalise this cooperation at a national level. An Interministerial Commission has recommended the establishment of a body to coordinate NFE for both adults and children. This is in the context of the aim of attaining UPE by enlarging the formal and nonformal activities of the Paraschool Education Department of the Ministry of Education. The Commission recognises the need to integrate and make best use of the resources of:

- the Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education
- the Ministry of Social Affairs
- the Ministry of Youth, Sport and Culture
- the Ministry of the Family and Women´s Advancement
- the Ministry of Labour and Vocational Training
- the Ministry of Commerce, Industry and Trades
- the Party and its associated Movements
- CED-Caritas
- other religious denominations
- the National Institute of Higher Education and Training (INADES-formation)

Without making political judgements it is difficult to assess whether this proposal lies in the same or the opposite direction to the rationalisation undertaken in Brazil. During the activity of the MOBRAL Foundation in primary level NFE up to 1985, there was cooperation between the Ministry of Education Secretariat of Primary and Secondary Education (SEPS), the Coordination Office for Primary and Secondary Education, the State Education Secretariats (SES), and MOBRAL. The Government determined in 1985 that the newly established National Foundation for Youth and Adult Education (EDUCAR), which replaced MOBRAL, should hand over to SEPS and the SES responsibility for NFE among children of primary school age. For an interim period EDUCAR was to continue to advise and to support teacher training, but the intention was to "municipalise" the provision.

A final variant may be mentioned. Although the central authorities establish the general plan in China, local contracts can be made between local government administrations and individual villages, and between villages and schools, for the establishment and successful conduct of classes.

We return therefore to the issue of local involvement. In the examples from Brazil, Indonesia, the Philippines, Bangladesh and the Indian Institute of Education, the involvement of identified communities in adjusting the curriculum and/or nominating the teachers is clear. Certification can also be conducted locally, although in the longer term some assurance of national comparability of certificates and their accreditation is necessary. A global structure which ensures transference to further learning structures also requires high level planning.

The training of teachers is most efficiently carried out at a level which assures a sufficient number of trainees, but remains accessible. India plans District Institutes of Educational Training, while in the Pakistan model a central facility in Lahore trained supervisors, who became

responsible for 10 Nai Roshni schools each, leaving teacher training to district trainers, also trained in Lahore. It should be emphasised that even a national centre can train staff to be flexible and sensitive to local conditions. A monitoring and evaluation system can be built into any structure, whether the linear reporting up from level to level typified by the Sri Lankan model, or the weekly meetings of heads of institutions in the Bosconia-La Florida project in Colombia. A distinction must be made between the collection and collation of accurate statistics, and recommendations for adjustments to structures and curriculum, which need not progress beyond the framework of the organisation. Such proposals may arise from behaviour and attitudes, as much as performance, and are therefore less easily quantifiable. Beyond monitoring, plans have to allow for in-built or external qualitative evaluation of outcomes, as discussed above under section 6.2.3.

7. SUGGESTIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

An enhanced system of NFE parallel to formal education may offer a solution where the latter is unavailable, insufficiently flexible or unable to attract and retain learners. The design of such a system depends upon local conditions and needs to be adjusted to the target population, existing social and administrative structures, available finances, and material and human resources. Planning and implementation will vary between situations marked by:

- mass rural illiteracy
- urban marginalisation
- ethnic and cultural differences between minorities and the majority society
- occupational employment of young children
- social deprivation among street children

Both general and specific conclusions can be drawn directly from the NFE programmes mounted in these situations which have been discussed in the preceding sections of this report.

7.1. Distinctions between Nonformal and Formal Education

The way teachers behave in class is not standardised, nor is there a universal curriculum of formal education. Nonformal education is marked by an even greater variation in structure, curricular content and methodology, but both approaches are viable alternatives for the goal of meeting basic learning needs. Neither mode invalidates the other, although differences remain in methods of evaluation and accreditation. When deciding whether to meet basic learning needs and to achieve UPE through reliance on an expansion of formal education or to consider nonformal alternatives, planning authorities have therefore to base their judgement on the situation of the learners. As is seen in the cases reported here, NFE is frequently indicated.

7.2. Identification of Learners' Needs

The relevant decision and its organisational effects will be determined by what is most appropriate and effective for prospective pupils. While the street children of Latin America and the Agta community of Luzon may, for example, be equally averse to hierarchical didacticism, more stratified societies may see no objection, even though the intention of education is to reduce or remove lifelong social division.

The identification of needs is ideally conducted in consultation with the learners, and/or in the case of young children with their families. This can be done by teachers who act as outreach workers even before they begin to teach (with implications for contractual conditions of service), or by larger project teams.

Out of this process will be derived a set of learning needs for the attainment of a basic level of education. They will be expressed through a curriculum composed of:

- general learning needs, notably literacy and numeracy;
- societal learning needs, related to the cultural context of the community and the likely development of the community environment and occupational activities;
- specific learning needs, related more closely to the situation and aspirations of learners.

To determine the specific learning needs, and the practicability of other elements of the curriculum, the characteristics of the target groups need to be assessed in terms of:

- time at their disposal
- daily travelling distance
- anticipated occupations
- health practices
- background scientific knowledge
- literacy levels of family and environment
- social structure
- etc.

7.3. Criteria for Judging the Quality of NFE

NFE is worth implementing not because it is cheap but because it is necessary for the purpose of providing suitable learning arrangements to children who do not have access to formal primary education for one reason or another. If it becomes clear that a nonformal approach is a viable method of meeting the basic learning needs of a given out-of-school population, its quality needs to be assured. It therefore has to be judged on its ability to respond to out-of-school children´s basic learning needs. With regard to any programme, the questions may be asked:

- What level of literacy is attained by pupils?
- Is the curriculum relevant and functional?
- Do pupils acquire learning skills for integration into subsequent formal and nonformal education, or for independent further informal learning?

This does not rule out the efficient and cost-saving use of resources. Teaching materials and equipment, and the training and competence of teachers, should not be less suitable for their purposes than those of formal education, but buildings need not be permanent or specific to NFE.

7.4. The Need to Motivate Learners

It cannot be supposed that those who have had little or no contact with education will know what benefits they or their children could derive from it, and can recognise all their own needs. Those who have dropped out of school already have a negative experience which must be overcome in any nonformal second round, and which can influence siblings and peers.

The keys to continued motivation appear to be relevance and assurance of achievement, but they can only be used once pupils are enrolled. Even in a project as carefully prepared as the Mobile Tent School, in which members of the target community were consulted on cultural perceptions and customs, it was necessary to entice children in by giving them each a daily bowl of rice.

Once attendance is secured, motivation cannot be taken for granted. The coordinating committee of the Filodehambre school in Colombia was to be composed of teachers, parents and students, but the latter two categories lacked the necessary time and interest.

Prepatory work with parents and local community leaders, and the employment of staff from the children´s own community on a paid or voluntary basis, will therefore often be a prerequisite for lasting success.

7.5. Planning Implications of the Adaptation of NFE to Specific Situations

It is thus most important to ensure that NFE projects are designed for precise groups of learners: preferably, much of the curriculum should be negotiated with the community. Perceived difficulties of national equivalence and accreditation can be overcome by testing interpretative skills rather than content knowledge, and by cooperation between curriculum designers in the formal and nonformal sectors.

There is a range of models available, any of which may be more or less suitable to a given environment. Whatever the arrangement, the sponsoring organisation has to ensure that the teachers and learners are backed by adequate provision for:

- physical facilities (building, furniture, major equipment, lighting, sanitation etc.)
- teaching material, both re-usable and consumable
- curriculum planning, appropriate to the target group
- recruitment and training of teachers
- monitoring of pupil attendance and progress
- certification of pupil achievement
- progression to further formal, nonformal or informal learning
- evaluation of short-term and long-term impact

All of these points have financial implications. Furthermore, if a large-scale programme is implemented without verification of its underlying premises and effectiveness, scarce resources can be wasted and a negative reaction against education encouraged. There is therefore a strong case for running pilot projects, and for cooperation between all relevant agencies, each of which will use its relevant experiences to check on the extrapolations of others. Negotiation with identifiable target communities is equally necessary.

For the continual adaptation of curricula, a valid system of feedback is needed, through teachers' and learners' reports, inspections, attainment tests and statistics, and where possible through impact evaluation.

7.6. The Need for Further Research and Cooperation

Beyond these immediate conclusions, it is evident that some further conceptual refinement is necessary, and that a more extensive analysis of the implementation of NFE for out-of-school children would be beneficial.

In other words, if we are to adapt, we have to know what it is we are adapting. A true perspective of the potential of NFE in all its variants can only be gained through further local, international and interregional comparison and analysis. This will have profound implications also for practices in formal education. The exploratory phase of the research on NFE reported here raises questions and indicates directions for further study and action by UIE as its contribution to the advancement of Education for All. We propose:

7.6.1. An in-depth empirical study of demonstration projects implementing NFE for out-of-school children and concentrating on:
- the relation with formal school systems, with particular regard to
  - viability of nonformal structures compared to the formal
  - techniques and tools for learner evaluation
  - certification of learning for accreditation
  - curriculum and teaching/learning materials
  - teaching methodology
  - training of teachers
  - scale and nature of the impact of NFE on formal education
- the evaluation of learning outcomes in order to assess the relevance of the curriculum
  - design and validation of appropriate qualitative instruments for evaluation of learning
  - two case studies of ongoing nonformal experiences

7.6.2. The development and dissemination of techniques and instruments of impact evaluation and of analysis of socioeducational results for NFE and post-literacy

7.6.3. The preparation of guidelines for policy makers and practitioners for the implementation of nonformal approaches to education

7.6.4. Networking between ongoing projects for cross-fertilisation of experiences

7.7 The Educational Context of NFE

Children can reach the basic level of education through formal or nonformal modes. Where the former route is closed to them, they manifestly need the latter. But in any discussion of the concept of NFE for out-of-school children, we stress that it should be placed in its context. Nonformal courses or learning packages are not effective if they are introduced in isolation. Beyond initial literacy, the post-literacy stage is needed to reinforce and stabilise the skills first learnt. Access to continuing education up to the level of Basic Education then has to be maintained. Moreover, NFE cannot be seen as a separate, self-contained system granting access to other systems, but as an element of a society's network of learning opportunities, with horizontal and vertical linkages.

Regardless of whether formal and nonformal education run parallel or are intertwined, they are parts of a wider spectrum of education of all types for children and adults, between whom there is no fixed division. Basic Education is both an element of and preparation for lifelong education, of which the developmental intention is an improvement of the quality of life of individuals and societies.

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